UNITED NATIONS
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The Contribution of the Principal Judicial Organ of the United Nations to the Achievement of the Objectives of the Organization

United Nations

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by Sir Muhammad Zafrulla Khan,
President of the International Court of Justice

Any assessment of the achievements and progress of the United Nations during the 25 years which have elapsed since the signing of the Charter —and thus of the Statute of the International Court of Justice which is an integral part of the Charter—at San Francisco on 26 June 1945, should, to be a just one, be attempted to some extent from the standpoint of 1945, that is to say taking into account the objects in view, and the means of achieving them, which were contemplated by the draftsmen of the Charter in that historic year. It is of course also possible to adopt a purely objective, external standpoint, to consider what good the Organization has done in the world; but it is perhaps of more interest, and of greater practical usefulness, to consider whether and to what extent the aims of 1945 have been achieved, and whether they have been achieved by the means envisaged in 1945.

So far as the International Court of Justice is concerned, it is not proposed to evaluate the work of the Court by means of any detailed commentary on the 31 Judgments and 13 Advisory Opinions it has given; for reasons given below, such an exercise would not amount to a complete assessment.

The present anniversary does, however, afford an opportunity for drawing attention to the standards by which the achievements of the International Court of Justice might be measured, and in particular to the expectations formulated in 1945. If a reply can be given to the question, What was the International Court of Justice intended to do, and how was it to do it? it may then be easier for others to judge whether the Court has in fact succeeded.

The Charter itself (Article 92) affords the authoritative description of the Court, taken up again in the Preamble to the Statute: "The International Court of Justice shall be the principal judicial organ of

the United Nations". The terms of the description merit some examination, but the first point of interest is that such a description appears at all in the Charter. The Covenant of the League of Nations also made provision for the establishment of a body which was to be called the "Permanent Court of International Justice", and briefly defined its general sphere of competence; but no attempt was made in the Covenant to go any further, or to indicate the status of the Permanent Court relative to the organs of the League or its relationship with the League itself. Subsequent League instruments showed that relationship to be a very close one; as has been justly stated, the Permanent Court was never a part of, but was closely related to, the League of Nations. The International Court of Justice, on the other hand, was conceived as a "principal organ" of the Organization: its Statute, as already observed, forms an integral part of the Charter.

Secondly, it is not without interest to observe that at an earlier stage in the history of the Organization, in the proposals of 9 October 1944—usually known as the Dumbarton Oaks Proposals—an international court of justice was contemplated as one of the principal organs of the proposed new Organization which was to become the United Nations, and Chapter VII of the Proposals contained the definition "the principal judicial organ of the Organization".

Thus from the very beginning the Court was envisaged, not merely as "World Court"—to use the convenient but inaccurate abbreviation often employed to refer to it—but as an integral part of the Organization. It is legitimate to suppose that the experience of the relationship between the Permanent Court and the League was being drawn upon; that the new Court was to be, by express provision and from the outset, what the Permanent Court had, in the absence of textual definition, in fact become, something organically bound up with the workings of the international organization which had given it birth. Furthermore, the parent organization of the new Court was itself conceived as a more unified and organic structure: as has been pointed out, the Charter lays a stress on the purposes, principles and action of the Organization which is not to be found in the Covenant, so that the whole atmosphere of the Charter is that of the constitution of an organized society rather than that of a simple treaty to co-operate. The mechanism devised and set in motion in 1945 was thus one which relied heavily on the integration of its component parts: and the International Court of Justice was envisaged as a "principal organ", i.e., as one of the most essential of those parts.

To return to the Charter itself, we have noted the significance of the description of the Court as a "principal organ" of the United Nations. The term "judicial" may perhaps be regarded as no more than a means of defining the functions of the Court; but it may be observed in passing that in accordance with general constitutional theory, it also implies the independence of the judicial "arm" of the United Nations

vis-a-vis the other principal organs. In any event, in the context of the viewpoint of 1945 discussed above, it becomes clear that for the States then assembled, the judicial function was one for which the Charter of the new Organization had to provide; confirmation of this—if confirmation were needed—is to be found in the emphatic references to the peaceful, and in particular the judicial settlement of disputes, which appear elsewhere in the Charter.

While it had become evident from the experience of the League and the Permanent Court that the ends of peace could not be served in the absence of some judicial body having jurisdiction over disputes between States, and closely linked with the main, political organization, the cataclysm of 1939 had made it only too clear that the mere existence of such a body within the Organization could not of itself suffice to avert the scourge of war. Nevertheless, a recognition of the potential value of a court having the widest possible jurisdiction may be seen in the provision in the Charter that all Members of the United Nations are *ipso facto* parties to the Statute of the Court. Although a somewhat similar provision appeared in the eventual Protocol of Signature of the Statute of the Permanent Court, there was no such provision in the League Covenant itself.

The importance of the Court as an aid to the attainment of the objectives of the United Nations was intended by the Charter to be realized in two specific ways. In the first place, the right and the duty of Member States to settle such disputes as might be susceptible of judicial determination by recourse to the Court (in the absence of agreement to settle by other peaceful means) was to constitute a means of reducing so far as possible international friction and mistrust. Secondly, the advisory jurisdiction of the Court may be recalled: the Court was to be always available to furnish the General Assembly or the Security Council (or other United Nations organs and specialized agencies authorized by the General Assembly) with advice on any legal question, in the form of an advisory opinion. It may fairly be assumed that it was considered undesirable for essentially political bodies to come to unaided decisions on questions of a legal character.

It is tempting to discuss the various Judgments and Advisory Opinions of the Court in order to endeavour to draw up the balance sheet of the degree of success achieved by the Court in the realization of the above-mentioned objectives during the 25 years since 1945; but the result of any such attempt would inevitably be misleading. Basically, the reason for this is that, apart from the obvious fact that the work of the Court cannot usefully be subjected to quantitative analysis, in terms, that is to say, merely of number of decisions handed down, the influence of the Court in the field of peaceful settlement of disputes is not confined to the determination of the individual disputes which are brought before it. On the one hand, the mere existence of the Court, especially as

regards States which have accepted its compulsory jurisdiction, has a pacific effect. The possibility of judicial settlement is likely to operate to discourage the prosecution of claims which, whatever their individual merits, it could prove very difficult, or impossible, to substantiate on a basis of positive international law. On the other hand, when a claim *is* pressed as far as the Court, the legal principles which the Court is called upon to enunciate in order to settle such a claim, concerned for example, with international responsibility *(Corfu Channel, Barcelona Traction* cases), with political asylum *(Asylum, Haya de la Torre)* or with the law of the sea *(Fisheries, North Sea Continental Shelf)*, may tend, thanks to the authority which has come to be attributed to the Court's pronouncements, and despite the absence of any strict doctrine of precedent, to remove from the realms of controversy, in the general international arena, certain issues which could otherwise have remained sources of dispute and friction. Requests for advisory opinions may also afford an opportunity for the enunciation by the Court of a general principle of international law (e.g., in the field of the law of international organizations: *Reparations for Injuries* case).

The question which may perhaps more usefully be asked is whether the United Nations machinery of which the Court was designed as an integral part has in fact been operating in the way intended by its designers. If we permit ourselves to take note just in passing of a quantitative observation, the number of Judgments and Advisory Opinions which the Court has been called upon to give in 25 years has been markedly less than the number given by the Permanent Court during the life of that body, which effectively extended over only 18 years. The Court was, as we have seen, designed as a wheel in the mechanism of the United Nations; has there been any tendency to make of it the fifth wheel of the coach?

In a sense, the latter question is not capable of a satisfactory reply. One might point to known disputes between States, which have appeared to be eminently suited to judicial settlement, but which the parties have not chosen to bring before the Court. In the nature of things one cannot know all the reasons why this has been so—reasons which, considered within the framework of the United Nations Charter and its concern for the settlement of disputes by appropriate peaceful means, will frequently have been proper and compelling. On the other hand, not all disputes between States come to the ears even of the citizens of the States concerned; who can say what legal and justiciable disputes may have been disposed of by other, possibly less satisfactory, means, or may still remain unsettled at this moment?

The question is not, however, to be treated for this reason as meaningless. To say that the parties to the Charter foresaw that the International Court of Justice should be the means of judicial settlement of such disputes as were appropriate to this form of peaceful settlement is to say that the parties to the Charter envisaged that the Member States of

the Organization would accept the jurisdiction of the International Court over such disputes. The degree to which States have submitted existing disputes to the Court may not be accurately measurable; but the extent to which they have accepted its jurisdiction *in principle* over legal disputes, or certain classes of legal disputes, is a matter of record.

It should be remembered that when the Charter and the Court's Statute were in preparation, there was, if anything, a majority in favour of a system of truly compulsory jurisdiction for the Court. However, since it seemed clear that such a system would not command complete support, it was decided, in order to achieve agreement, to adopt the system of the "optional clause" contained in Article 36 of the Statute, which had existed for the Permanent Court also, whereby States may deposit declarations recognizing the Court's jurisdiction as compulsory over specified classes of legal disputes.

It might have been expected, in view of the majority in favour of the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court, that the opportunity afforded by Article 36 of the Statute to provide for a considerable measure of compulsory jurisdiction, would have been taken up by most Member States of the United Nations. Nor was this expectation disappointed during the early years of the Organization: at the end of 1950, for example, the United Nations had 60 Member States, of which 34 had filed a declaration of acceptance of compulsory jurisdiction under Article 36—a slim majority, but a majority! (36 declarations had in fact been filed, the other two being those of Switzerland and Liechtenstein, non-Members of the Organization.)

The trend of later years, however, has been less encouraging. By 1960, the number of Member States of the United Nations had increased to 99, but only 37 States (about 38 per cent) had filed declarations under Article 36. Ten years later still, the figures for this anniversary year show a further slight decline: of the 126 Member States, 44 (just under 36 per cent) have accepted the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court. In other words, and this is the point which it is worth stressing, as the composition of the United Nations has become wider, the idea of compulsory judicial settlement, which was favoured by so many of the States gathered at San Francisco in 1945, has also found increased acceptance, but at a markedly slower rate. The system of *compulsory* judicial settlement was of course not built in as an integral part of the United Nations peace-keeping machine; but it is to be feared that widespread hesitation in the acceptance of that system may betray a certain reserve with regard to the general principle of judicial settlement of disputes, which, as we have seen, was built into the United Nations system.

Another discouraging tendency, the seeds of which were sown in 1946, is that of depositing declarations of acceptance of the Court's compulsory jurisdiction subject to reservations which, in effect, enable the State concerned to choose whether or not the "compulsory" jurisdiction will in fact be accepted as compulsory. Reservations of this kind

have been before the Court on more than one occasion, and have been the subject of severe criticism. Nevertheless, although in recent years there has been some improvement in this respect, there are still deposited with the Secretary-General, and not withdrawn, declarations of this kind which, as recognitions of jurisdiction, are no more than the shadow without the substance.

There is perhaps nothing to be gained by attempting to attribute causes to this attitude towards compulsory jurisdiction, although it may be observed that it is to some extent connected with the question of the significance in this field of State sovereignty—as to which there are at least two opposed schools of thought underlying the practice of the Governments of the various Member States. Nevertheless, a digression which can certainly be justified is an attempt to clear up one or two misunderstandings which underlie objections to the practical value, as distinct from the desirability in theory, of international judicial settlement.

For example, it is sometimes suggested that international proceedings take an unconscionable time; and it is not difficult to quote examples of cases brought before the International Court of Justice which have in fact lasted for several years. A closer examination of the proceedings will, however, disclose that the time spent by the parties in waiting on the Court has been, in proportion, remarkably little. If the parties feel they need, and are willing to concede each other, considerable periods of time for the preparation of their pleadings and arguments, it is not for the Court to insist on a more rapid procedure. But nor can any criticism be addressed to the judicial process of the Court for what are evidently delays intimately related to the nature of the dispute itself; most cases which reach the Court involve a variety of complex issues, a heavy documentation, and a considerable history. It is therefore legitimate to suppose that a dispute which takes several years to settle through judicial proceedings would have taken a comparable time to settle in any other way, and that if speedier methods were used, the result might not be even as satisfactory.

Another objection which has been heard to the bringing of a dispute before the International Court of Justice is that of the expense involved. Insofar as this objection is one directed to any sort of arbitral or judicial process at all, it rests on the implied premise that the cost to the States concerned of an unsettled dispute—assuming it to be impossible or undesirable, possibly for the reason just mentioned, to attempt to settle it by less formal means—is likely to be substantially less than the cost of proceedings. The difficulty of establishing this premise is obvious. Should it be a question, however, of choice between the International Court and an arbitral tribunal, Member States of the United Nations should need no reminding that as litigants before the Court they are free from some of the most substantial costs of an arbitration, namely, the arbitrators' fees and the expenses of premises and a secre-

tariat, since the expenses of the Court are borne by the United Nations as a whole.

It is of course still necessary to brief and pay Agents and Counsel before the Court, as would be necessary also before an arbitral tribunal. Here however a wrong impression may have been given by the occasions on which well-known internationalists of high repute have been briefed to appear before the Court. It is worth pointing out that while the contribution of those jurists, not only to the efficient presentation of the case of the State instructing them, but also to the clarification and development of international law in general, is inestimable, not infrequently cases have been conducted, to the entire satisfaction of all concerned, by the legal advisers of the Foreign Office of the State concerned, sometimes with the assistance of members of the national bar of that State. So far as the Court's procedure is concerned, the procedural rules, set out in the Statute and Rules of Court, are very flexible and are the subject of detailed comment in standard works on the Court. The Court is in fact now engaged on a revision of its Rules, and it is hoped that the new Rules will make it still easier for those unfamiliar with the procedure to find their way.

It remains to be considered whether the faculty to request advisory opinions is being made use of as was originally assumed would be the case. It may be recalled that when the League of Nations Covenant made provision for the proposed Permanent Court of International Justice to have advisory jurisdiction, the concept was so novel that no provisions were included in the 1922 Statute of the Permanent Court to give effect to it. Nevertheless, the advisory function proved in practice to be no less important than the judicial function; the Permanent Court gave 5 Advisory Opinions before it had to give judgment in a contentious case, and in the course of its existence it gave 27 Opinions, on the average three every two years.

When the Statute of the present Court was designed after the War, the provisions for the advisory jurisdiction which had been added to the Permanent Court's Statute in 1929 were adopted, and in the Charter, the right to request an Opinion was conferred, not merely on the Security Council and the General Assembly, following the precedent of the League of Nations, but also on any other United Nations organ or specialized agency which might at any time be so authorized by the General Assembly. It was hoped that the new Court would be able to continue the excellent work done by the Permanent Court in this field of its activity.

It is unfortunately impossible after 25 years to say that this expectation has been completely fulfilled. In approximately the same period of time, the present Court has only been called upon to give 13 Advisory Opinions, against the Permanent Court's 27, and this despite the widening of the class of applicants for Opinions just referred to. None of these has been requested by the Security Council, and only two by the specialized agencies. While it may be possible to discern a certain reaction in

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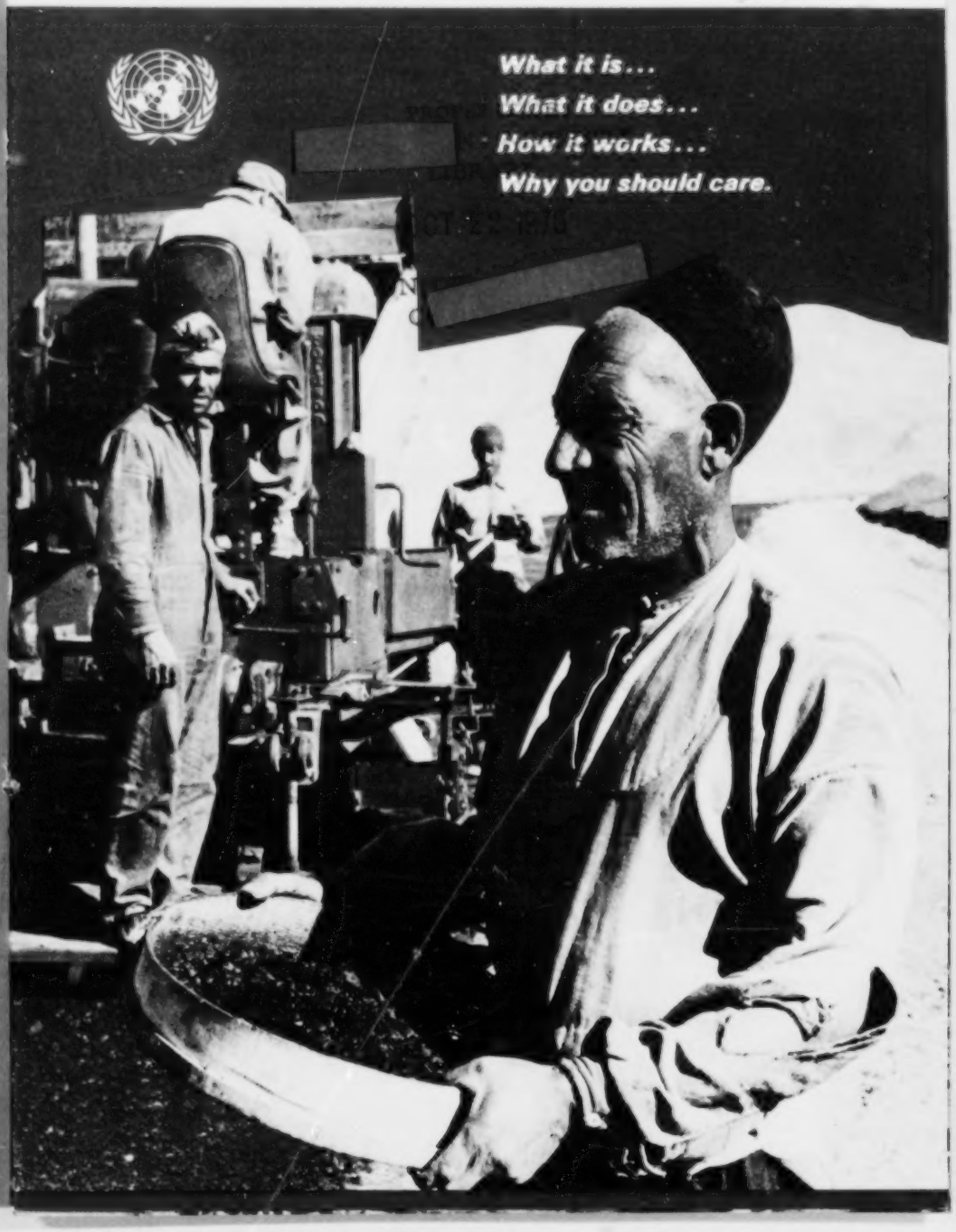
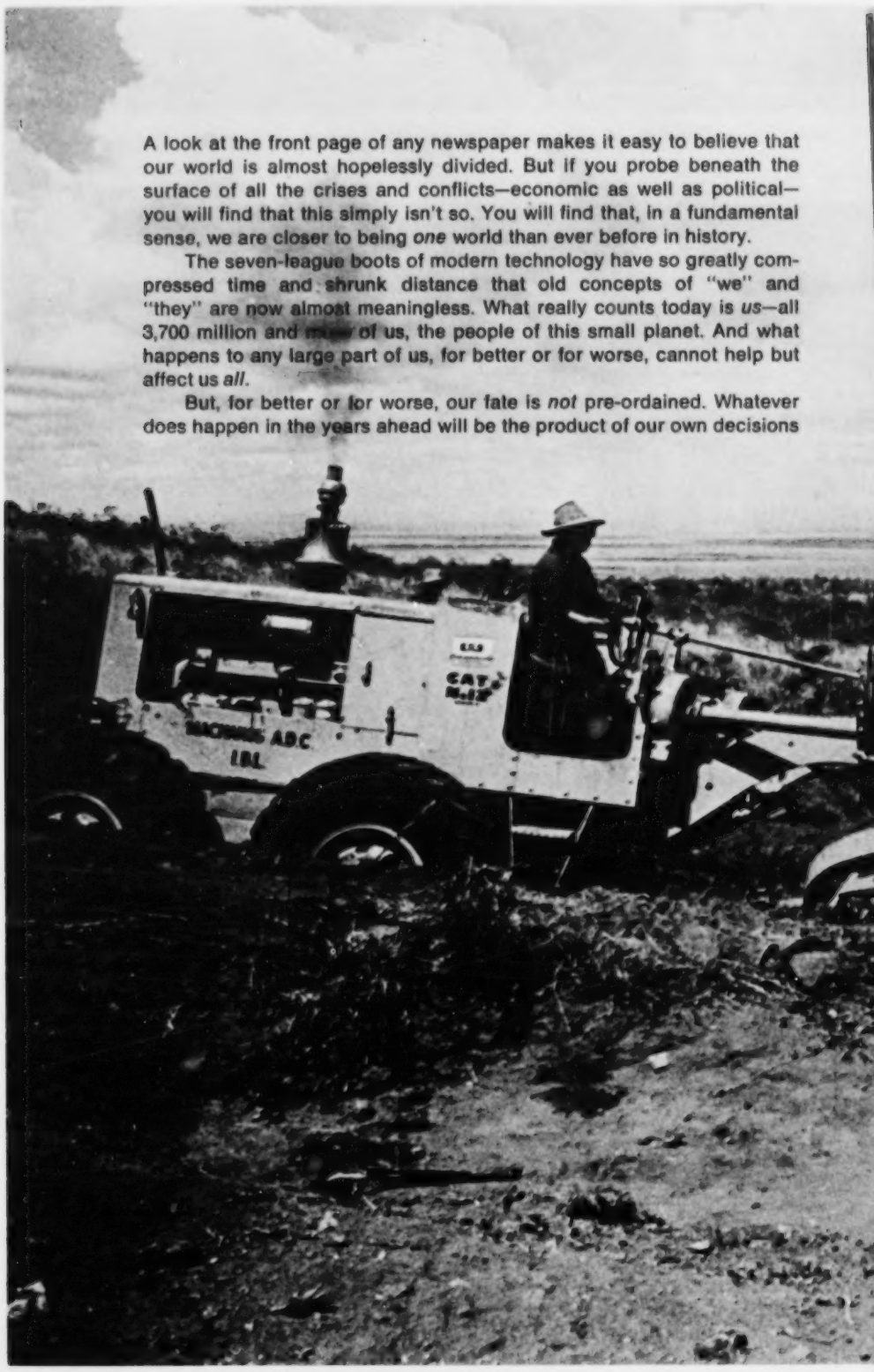
THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME



A look at the front page of any newspaper makes it easy to believe that our world is almost hopelessly divided. But if you probe beneath the surface of all the crises and conflicts—economic as well as political—you will find that this simply isn't so. You will find that, in a fundamental sense, we are closer to being *one* world than ever before in history.

The seven-league boots of modern technology have so greatly compressed time and shrunk distance that old concepts of "we" and "they" are now almost meaningless. What really counts today is *us*—all 3,700 million and more of us, the people of this small planet. And what happens to any large part of us, for better or for worse, cannot help but affect us *all*.

But, for better or for worse, our fate is *not* pre-ordained. Whatever does happen in the years ahead will be the product of our own decisions



and our own actions in applying the totally unprecedented power now at the disposal of the human race. That power is quite as adequate for building as for destroying. The question is—will we use it for or against our overriding mutual interests?

No one can answer that question with absolute assurance. Yet, as the following pages show, we the people of the world *can* put aside our differences and co-operate for the common good. The United Nations Development Programme is one example among many of just such a partnership.

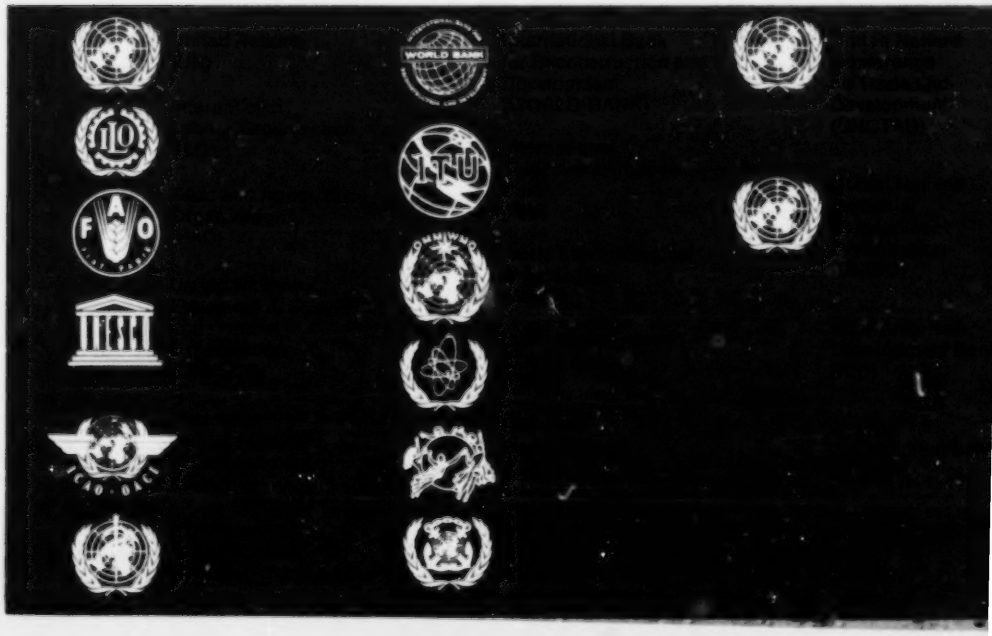
Paul G. Hoffman
Administrator
United Nations Development Programme

The United Nations has been working—for almost a quarter of a century—to help improve the quality of human life and enlarge the scope of human opportunities. In recent years, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has become the world organization's principal administrative and financial arm in a key aspect of that effort.

THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME— A PARTNERSHIP OF BILLIONS

The UNDP today is the world's largest programme of multinational technical co-operation. It works in partnership with over 130 governments, representing close to three billion people. Voluntary contributions from almost every nation on earth provide the UNDP with its financial resources. Governments of low-income countries the world over, together with the United Nations and 16 other international agencies, are currently carrying out UNDP-assisted activities which will cost almost $2,500 million on completion. Development work already completed has cost close to $1,500 million—more than half of it paid by the developing countries themselves.

In pursuit of its basic objective—helping the poorer nations develop their human and natural resources more fully—the UNDP affords the international community a significant opportunity for productive co-operation. The sharing of technical knowledge, skills, personnel and facilities by participating countries is an essential part of the UNDP's day-to-day operations. Thus, the Programme is instrumental not only in building a foundation for global economic and social progress but in helping to lay a solid cornerstone for a more peaceful world as well.



Poverty breeds poverty...and poverty of opportunity perpetuates it.

Poor nations—like poor people—are caught up in a day-to-day fight for survival. Forced to live a hand-to-mouth existence they cannot put enough aside to invest adequately in their own futures. Poor because they can't develop their own resources, and unable to develop their resources because they are poor.

THE BUSINESS OF DEVELOPMENT—THE UNDP'S ROLE IN A WORLD-WIDE EFFORT

This circle of poverty and poverty of opportunity is a particularly vicious one. Almost impossible to break without help from the outside.

The UNDP—drawing on the combined knowledge and expertise of virtually every member of the United Nations and its family of agencies—provides a relatively small but vital part of that help.

By revealing sound opportunities for large-scale investment, the UNDP helps low-income countries become able to attract the capital they need to stimulate and support economic and social advancement. And it also helps those nations become able to make more effective use of that capital and of all other available resources.

In view of evidence that as much as 80 per cent of the developing world's natural wealth lies untapped, and that an estimated 90 per cent of its manpower potentials are vastly underutilized, the opportunities for measurably improving the quality of human life are enormous. UNDP-supported development work is designed to take advantage of many of those opportunities.

By mid-1970 over 1,000 *large-scale* pre-investment projects had been undertaken by the developing countries with UNDP support, and more than 200 others were about to get under way. These projects cost an average of over $2,000,000 each, generally take between four and five years to complete, can engage the services of a score of international experts and require a large inventory of specialized modern equipment.

UNDP-supported pre-investment projects can be crucial to a country's overall development effort in one or more of four basic ways:

- By uncovering, inventorying and determining the economic potential of *natural resources*
- By educating and training large numbers of people in the *knowledge and skills* necessary to build and maintain modern economic and social systems

- By establishing research centres for the development and application of modern *productive technologies*
- By strengthening national and regional frameworks for development *planning and administration*.

LARGE-SCALE DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS APPROVED FOR UNDP ASSISTANCE (SINCE 1959)

Field of activity	Number of projects	Project costs (in U.S. equivalents)
Resources surveys	479	$805,400,000
Education & Training	444	$1,264,900,000
Applied research	277	$624,500,000
Economic development planning	34	$88,000,000
TOTAL	1,234	$2,782,800,000*

*Of which $1,064,900,000 provided by UNDP and $1,717,900,000 provided by recipient governments.

In addition, during a typical year the UNDP supports about 2,500 *smaller scale* development projects. With average yearly expenditures of some $25,000 each, these projects often employ only a single international expert, can be completed in several months, rarely require outlays for equipment, but *do* provide low-income countries with critically needed advisory, consultant and training services.

UNDP support for well over 300 large-scale and tens of thousands of smaller projects has now been completed. But in every assisted country, governments are continuing to carry out—and often to expand—development activities begun with the Programme's help.

A great part of all this work is devoted to building and strengthening governmental, economic and community institutions—because the existence and vitality of such institutions are critical factors in making it possible for the benefits of development progress to reach the average citizen.

UNDP-supported country and regional projects are operational in all parts of the world.

COST OF ALL DEVELOPMENT WORK APPROVED FOR UNDP ASSISTANCE BY GEOGRAPHICAL REGION (SINCE 1959)

Region	Project costs (in U.S. equivalents)	Region	Project costs (in U.S. equivalents)
Africa	$1,334,100,000	Middle East	$354,300,000
The Americas	$894,100,000	Inter-regional	$63,900,000
Asia and the Far East	$1,043,400,000	Global	$1,500,000
Europe	$288,000,000	To be allocated	$85,200,000
		TOTAL	$3,962,600,000*

*Of which $1,871,600,000 provided by UNDP and $2,121,200,000 provided by recipient governments.

UNDP-assisted projects—large and small—annually engage the services of some 8,000 international experts, provide over 5,000 fellowships for advanced study abroad and supply almost $30 million worth of equipment. The projects help stimulate progress in virtually every economic and social sector.

THE BUSINESS OF DEVELOPMENT—ACTION ON A BROAD FRONT

Agriculture: including land and water utilization; crop improvement; animal health and husbandry; forestry and fishery development; land reclamation and resettlement; agricultural economics; marketing and training; establishment of pilot and demonstration farms; extension services; food processing.

Industry: including mining, manufacturing and light industry techniques; product development and trade promotion; establishment of co-operatives, pilot plants and industrial parks; training in entrepreneurial, managerial, supervisory, engineering, technical and vocational skills.

Education and Science: including establishment and strengthening of educational institutions; teacher training at primary, secondary and

university levels; technical and science training; educational administration and research in educational techniques; work-oriented literacy programmes.

Public Services: including conventional, geothermal and atomic power production; land, water and air transportation; telecommunications; meteorology.

Health: including control and eradication of communicable diseases; maternal and child health care services; medical and nursing training; worker safety; pollution control; public health administration.

Housing, Building and Physical Planning: including town planning and urban renewal; water supply; sewerage; harbour development; training of building construction personnel.

Public Administration: including high-level training in development planning techniques; establishment of institutes for economic planning; plan implementation; national statistical services; assistance in legislative programmes; advice on fiscal and financial problems.

Social Welfare: including industrial and labor relations; community development research; family planning; youth counselling; social security programmes; narcotics control.

COST OF ALL DEVELOPMENT WORK APPROVED FOR UNDP ASSISTANCE BY ECONOMIC & SOCIAL SECTOR (SINCE 1959)

Sector	Project costs (in $U.S. equivalents)	Sector	Project costs (in $U.S. equivalents)
Agriculture	$1,176,200,000	Housing, Building, Physical Planning	$80,300,000
Industry	$746,700,000	Public Administration	$205,400,000
Education & Science	$559,700,000	Social Welfare	$40,300,000
Public Services	$422,600,000	Multi-sector	$131,600,000
Health	$178,000,000	To be allocated	$361,000,000
		TOTAL	$3,902,800,000

Development aid — to be effective — must be tailored to national and regional conditions and be geared to development objectives individual countries have themselves determined. The UNDP system is organized to help low-income countries make the best possible use of available UNDP resources in realizing those objectives.

MACHINERY FOR PROGRESS— WHAT MAKES THE UNDP RUN

Resident Representatives direct Field Offices in over 90 developing countries throughout the world. These officials, as leaders of the team of representatives of all United Nations organizations concerned, assist governments in formulating programmes of UNDP aid and in seeing that the Programme's field operations are carried out. Their role is being strengthened and may include authorization to approve certain types of requests for UNDP assistance.

UNDP Headquarters in New York maintains a close and co-ordinated supervision of all Programme activities. With an international staff drawn from more than 60 countries, the UNDP's Administrator reviews each developing country's proposed programme of UNDP assistance. Authority is delegated to him by the Governing Council to approve project assistance within each country programme, as well as assistance to most types of multi-country projects. In addition, he is responsible for all phases and aspects of the implementation of the Programme.

Representatives of 37 nations—at all levels of development—make up the UNDP's *Governing Council* which normally meets twice a year. The Council reviews UNDP policies and activities and allocates UNDP resources for national, regional and inter-regional programmes.

At every level of the UNDP organization—in the field, at Headquarters, within the Governing Council—criteria laid down by the United Nations General Assembly serve as the basis for determining approval of requests for assistance. Governments must demonstrate that their programmes or projects:

- have been selected to meet priority needs.
- will have a significant impact on economic and social progress.
- are integrated into overall national or regional development plans.
- are designed for early transfer to complete supervision and management by national personnel.

Furthermore, UNDP assistance must be:

- co-ordinated with other external assistance programmes.
- free from political considerations.

The application of these standards has helped give a character to UNDP activities that is unique in development co-operation.

Development is a long-term process. Goals will not—cannot—be achieved overnight. But in moving towards a better future, substantial gains are being recorded today. Here are samples of what low-income countries are accomplishing now with flexible and timely support from the UNDP and its partner agencies of the United Nations system:

MEETING THE NEEDS— THE UNDP IN ACTION

Thousands of acres of land suitable for rice growing have been reclaimed from rain-drenched swamps along Guinea's low-lying coast. Thousands more can be drained and high-yielding varieties of rice planted. It is estimated that in the near future Guinea will be able to meet domestic demands for rice and look to export possibilities. (UNDP/FAO).

The introduction of modern fishing techniques has helped the Philippines increase deep-sea catches by some 60,000 tons a year. Well-stocked tuna fishing grounds have been located and the possibilities of opening up an export-oriented industry are being explored. (UNDP/FAO).

Diseases stemming from dietary deficiencies are being attacked at their source. A project headquartered in Mexico is developing new varieties of corn to increase the protein content and raise general nutritional levels in the daily diets of working families in Latin America wherever corn is a staple food. Extension workers are being trained to help farmers the world over raise these new varieties. (UNDP).

The growth of manufacturing enterprises in Singapore is causing a critical shortage of industrial technicians. The Ministry of Education is setting up a variety of in-plant technical and vocational training programmes as well as advanced courses for the training of technical instructors. (UNDP/UNESCO/ILO).

With the help of over $100 million in recent loans from the World Bank and financial institutions in 10 countries—bringing the total to more than $600 million—Brazil continues to expand its hydro-electric power production capacity. The addition of facilities capable of generating 1700 megawatts is part of a recommended 15-year programme of electric power development resulting from pre-investment surveys and feasibility studies in the South central region. (UNDP/World Bank).

The Medium Industry Bank in Korea is promoting industrialization by providing specialized consultancy services in such areas as production and industrial engineering and cost accounting to the small and medium firms that make up 98 per cent of all industrial enterprises throughout the country. (UNDP/ILO).

The West African nation of Gabon is planning construction of a railroad to provide access to valuable timber resources in the country's rugged North-eastern region. Engineering specifications for the rail link – and part of the initial financing required – resulted from pre-investment surveys and feasibility studies. (UNDP/World Bank).

Seventy per cent of the teachers in Mali with professional diplomas have graduated from the Secondary School Teacher Training Institute in Bamako. Efforts continue to further reduce this African country's dependence on expatriate educators, particularly at advanced levels. (UNDP/UNESCO).

The United Arab Republic is the first country to receive major assistance in its family planning programme from the United Nations Fund for Population Activities. Allocations from UNFPA are providing advisors and fellowships as well as contraceptives and other supplies. UNICEF is also collaborating by providing funds for communications and transportation equipment used by 2,800 government Family Planning Units throughout the country. (UN/WHO).

Fertile soil and sweet water are two of the earth's most precious natural resources. The Government of India is reclaiming and protecting a million acres of land in the Great Indian Desert through a programme of efficient soil and water management. (UNDP/FAO).

One of the most politically volatile areas on earth is also a scene of extensive and successful international co-operation. Forty-two nations in Northern Africa, the Middle East and Asia are working together to combat a common and dangerous enemy, the crop-devouring desert locust. Improved tracking techniques, including the use of satellites, could help bring this centuries-old plague under control—which would substantially increase food supplies for 350 million people in an eleven million square mile region. (UNDP/FAO).

UNDP support of development efforts world-wide is made possible by voluntary contributions from nearly every country in the world. Large and small, rich and poor, east and west, north and south—more than 125 nations have contributed some $1,800 million to the Programme's central resources over the years. Pledges for 1970 include these from* ***the twenty largest contributors:***

MACHINERY OF PROGRESS— FUEL FOR THE DRIVE

Australia ($2,000,000)	**Denmark** ($15,600,000)	**Italy** ($3,000,000)	**Sweden** ($21,000,000)
Austria ($1,600,000)	**France** ($4,324,324)	**Japan** ($4,800,000)	**Switzerland** ($3,100,000)
Belgium ($2,500,000)	**Finland** ($2,000,000)	**Netherlands** ($9,444,444)	**USSR** ($3,000,000)
Brazil ($1,150,000)	**Germany (Fed. Rep.)** ($11,202,186)	**Norway** ($5,949,881)	**United Kingdom** ($14,160,000)
Canada ($15,000,000)	**India** ($3,500,000)	**Pakistan** ($1,017,000)	**United States** ($86,267,505)

Plus . . . more than $250,000 each from

Algeria	Ghana	Kuwait	Philippines	Spain	United Arab Rep.
Argentina	Greece	Libya	Poland	Thailand	Venezuela
Colombia	Iran	Mexico	Saudi Arabia	Turkey	Yugoslavia
Czechoslovakia		New Zealand		Ukrainian SSR	

. . . more than $100,000 each from

Afghanistan	Chile	Ecuador	Iraq	Morocco	Sudan
Burma	China	Guyana	Ireland	Peru	Tunisia
Byelorussian SSR	Congo, Dem. Rep. of	Hungary	Israel	Rep. of Korea	Uruguay
Ceylon		Indonesia	Lebanon	Romania	

. . . as well as contributions from

Albania	Cuba	Ivory Coast	Mali	People's Rep. of the Congo	Trinidad/ Tobago
Barbados	Cyprus	Jamaica	Malta	Rep. of Viet Nam	Uganda
Bolivia	Dahomey	Jordan	Mauritania	Rwanda	United Rep. of Tanzania
Botswana	Dominican Rep.	Kenya	Mauritius	Senegal	Upper Volta
Bulgaria	El Salvador	Laos	Monaco	Sierra Leone	Yemen
Burundi	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Mongolia	Singapore	Zambia
Cambodia	Gabon	Liberia	Nepal	Somalia	
Cameroon	Gambia	Luxembourg	Nicaragua	Southern Yemen	
Central African Republic	Guatemala	Madagascar	Niger	Swaziland	
Chad	Holy See	Malawi	Nigeria	Syria	
Costa Rica	Honduras	Malaysia	Panama	Togo	
	Iceland	Maldives	Paraguay		

The $225 million pledged for 1970 will enable the UNDP to support development operations costing some $500 million. For the developing nations themselves bear well over half the total costs of their own UNDP-assisted projects.

*All amounts in U.S. $ equivalents

MACHINERY OF PROGRESS— SOME END RESULTS

If you are a citizen of one of the 127 countries supporting UNDP's peace-building work, you are entitled to a measure of satisfaction. By the beginning of 1970 your government's contributions have helped develop:

► NATURAL RESOURCES

Millions of acres of land have been made more productive; hundreds of millions of tons of mineral resources have been uncovered; sources capable of producing billions of kilowatts of hydro-electric power have been located.

► HUMAN RESOURCES

Over a half-million men and women of low-income countries — including 50,000 who have studied abroad on international fellowships — have been educated and trained to carry out work essential to the progress and well being of their nations.

► TECHNOLOGICAL CAPABILITIES

Over 550 applied research centres and technical training institutes have been established or strengthened in more than 100 developing countries.

► INVESTMENT CAPITAL

Over $3,800 million of follow-up development investments have already been directly or indirectly associated with UNDP-supported resource surveys, applied research projects and industrial feasibility studies.

This is the groundwork. More, much more, needs to be done. Time is short, but opportunities are enormous . . . dwarfed only by the cost of ignoring them. Development co-operation for a better life for all of us must be intensified ***now.***

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